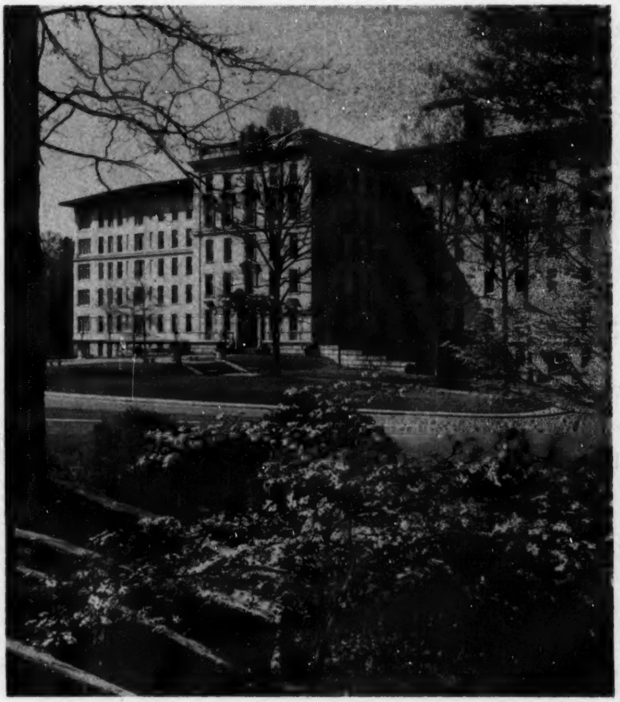
THE JOURNAL

OF THE

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION

Volume 11 | May, 1960 | Number 3



Emory University Hospital

THE JOURNAL

of the

College and University Personnel Association

THE JOURNAL of the College and University Personnel Association is published four times each year. Editorial office: 1205 West California Street, Urbana, Illinois. Business office: 809 South Wright Street, Champaign, Illinois. Subscription rates: Free to members of the Association; $1.00 per year for libraries.

NOTES & QUOTES . . .

Study Of Group Life Insurance Plans In Colleges And Universities

The following summary of a recent study of group life insurance programs at selected colleges and universities in November, 1959, has been submitted to the Research Committee of the College and University Personnel Association for the information of CUPA members. The survey was compiled by Frank F. Morris, Director, Department of Personnel Services, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania. He will supply more detailed information about the survey to interested CUPA members, on request.

In conducting this survey, questionnaires were sent to 51 institutions. All replied. Five reported that they did not have group life insurance plans. Of the 46 institutions submitting information about their group plans, one answered only those questions relating to the extent of employee participation in the group plan and the determination of the amount of coverage for individual employees. Minor qualifications and exceptions in individual plans, itemized in the complete survey, are omitted from this summary.

1. All full-time academic and nonacademic employees are insured in 36 institutions (78%). Only one group plan is provided by 21 institutions. Two or more group plans are provided by 15 institutions. In the case of institutions reporting more than one plan, only those plans applicable to academic employees are analyzed in the survey.

2. Amount of coverage is determined by salary in 21 institutions (46%); based on various criteria, including salary, position, length of service, etc., in 18 institutions (39%). "Collective decreasing insurance" — i.e., the coverage decreases each year but cost remains constant — is provided by seven institutions (15%).

3. A maximum amount of at least $20,000 is offered by 19 institutions (42%).

4. Coverage becomes effective immediately upon employment in 36 institutions (80%).

5. Group coverage (usually a reduced amount) is available to retired employees of 24 institutions (53%).

(Continued on Page iii)

THE JOURNAL

Vol. 11 May, 1960 No. 3

CONTENTS

	Page
The Irrepressible Issues Of The 60's — *Adolf A. Berle, Jr.*	1
A Way To Verify Your Classification Plan — *Charles T. Clark*	7
An Analysis of Retirement Benefits Paid By Industrial Pension Plans — *Shelton F. King*	10
The Evaluation Of The Use Of Tests In The Selection Of Secretarial Personnel — *Alex Bedrosian*, *Frank H. Lewis*	14
Three Ring Circus — *George H. Adams*	17
How Healthful Is Exercise?	21
Cupa's Book Shelf	25
Notes & Quotes	ii
Editorially Speaking — *Reginald D. Root*	iv

6. Total and permanent disability insurance is included in the group plan by 33 institutions (73%).

7. Accidental death and dismemberment insurance is included in the group plan by 18 institutions (40%).

8. Detailed analysis of determination of amount of coverage:

	Number of Institutions	Percentage of Institutions
100% of Annual Salary	9	20
150% of Annual Salary	4	9
200 % of Annual Salary	8	17
Fixed Amounts (based on various criteria. See Item 2 above)	18	39
Collective Decreasing Insurance (See Item 2 above)	7	15

9. Detailed analysis of maximum amount of insurance available:

	Number of Institutions	Percentage of Institutions
$40,000 or more	6	13
$30,000 up to $40,000	2	4
$20,000 up to $30,000	11	24
$10,000 up to $20,000	11	24
$5,000 up to $10,000	11	24
Less than $5,000	4	9

Bug Spraying Not Education

. . . It seems that planes should have been out spraying the mosquito haunts in late June. But the state decided last year to list its $135,000 mosquito-control appropriation in the budget of the Department of Conservation, instead of in the appropriation for the college's Agriculture Experiment Station. In the changeover, the take-off of the spraying planes was delayed. . . .

Under the new arrangement, the state's purchasing procedure had to be used to hire the planes and procure the materials. The state's Division of Purchase Property tried to speed matters by waiving all the requirements it could, but the spraying contract could not be signed before July 15. . . .

The State Budget Director, who dislikes mosquitoes as much as anyone, said the spraying set-up might have been unchanged if the university officials had wanted the mosquito spraying listed under "education". The appropriation, it was explained, had in the past made the university's budget look fatter than it really was.

—*New York Times,* July 30, 1959.

Faculty Compensation, Salaries and Benefits

(From reports of discussions at the Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education, October, 1959.)

Statistics were given to show that faculty salaries, as judged in terms of purchasing power, have diminished steadily since the year 1940 — a suitable "parity" year. Recognizing this trend, the supporters of higher education have recently made concerted efforts, particularly since the year 1953, to increase faculty salaries, but rising prices have wiped out a large part of the real gain. As one participant phrased it, we must approach the salary problem with a two-fold purpose: to determine what must be done to *catch* up, and what can be done to *keep* up. For the next ten years we must increase faculty salaries at least 5% per year to catch up with earlier losses

(Continued on Page 32)

Editorially Speaking...

REGINALD D. ROOT

Travelling from Seattle to the January 28 and 29 meeting of the Executive Committee of CUPA at Chicago, over the Cascade Mountains in Eastern Washington at 23,000 feet, I have a guilty feeling. Yesterday I received a hurry-up letter from our Editor that my copy, which I was supposed to supply for the May issue of THE JOURNAL was due. My lame excuse is that I have been so conscious of my duties as Chairman of the Membership Committee that I forgot this other assignment. So I am going to try to put some thoughts together as we streak our way eastward.

I have just re-read Paul Hartley's, "Editorially Speaking," in the November JOURNAL. You may recall that Paul wrote about personnel work as a profession. He also discussed the training necessary for entering this profession and came to the conclusion that a good liberal arts backround, an apprenticeship in a well-run personnel office, and some additional college work was the ideal preparation. I think I am inclined to agree with Paul.

"Personnel" is certainly not a "science," but truly an "art". Leadership and recognition in the personnel field will come only to those with a breadth of wisdom and knowledge of human beings and human affairs. This does not mean, of course, that those trained in the specifics of business administration, with a major in personnel, cannot acquire and achieve that necessary breadth of wisdom also.

As I sit with different evaluation committees reviewing job descriptions and assigning numerical values to different factors — such as education, experience, initiative, judgment, scope — in order that we may come up with the proper classification of a position, I sometimes get cynical. Don't we just look at the job as a whole, and start assigning numerical values to the factors involved, so that the sum total will create the prejudged classification? Can we ever be completely objective and scientific? Is there an analogy in law, where, in many cases, doesn't the judge form his conclusion first (his conclusion being determined by his heredity and environment), and then search out the cases to support his conclusion? I am arguing here that in the evaluation of the great variety of positions in the modern university, breadth of knowledge and wisdom are more important than the technique of evaluation. I am not belittling good techniques, but I do agree with Paul that these may be acquired.

We all have to have definite "Rules and Regulations" for staff personnel. Certainly we must be specific and precise in many of our rules, but we must not let these rules and regulations become so rigidly applied as to be the "be-all" and "end-all".

(I have had my lunch. We are now over Bismarck, North Dakota.)

We must not permit our specific

rules and regulations to create inequities in individual cases, but we must be prepared to make exceptions and still not allow the exceptions to nullify the rule. Here, again, using an analogy in law, it's too bad we can't decide on the equities of the particular case under the common law, but, instead, must have rigid statutes. Statute law becomes abominable when applied rigidly by judges without "a breadth of knowledge and wisdom".

Youthful, idealistic trained colleagues may wish to rush headlong into a formal merit rating scheme. Older, wiser colleagues may be skeptical. The substitute is more difficult. It is: know all your supervisors and executive officers well. I served for three years at the University of Washington on a Freshman Faculty Scholarship Committee. We reviewed some 800 applications each spring. We were forced to disregard the formal rating section of the application and the letter of recommendation from the minister (not meant to be sacrilegious) and go to the grade-point average, the intelligence test score, and what the high school advisor and/or principal said about the applicant. And we were better off if we knew the high school advisor or the principal personally! Perhaps, there is an analogy here to formal merit rating plans.

Going on my fourth year in personnel work (my first training course was at the CUPA Conference at Cornell in 1956), I have learned that "Personnel" means "Problems". Several times my decisions have been called "appalling". I hate that word. There is no such thing as perfection in personnel administration. The word, "perfection," recalls a course in poetry — Tennyson and Browning — taught by William Lyon Phelps at Yale. Browning wrote a poem about Andrea del Sarto, an early Italian painter. The theme of the poem is that del Sarto is not remembered because he painted so perfectly in every detail. And so I think it is wise to say: "Don't seek perfection in Personnel".

(We are only an hour out of Chicago. I'm not so sure that the altitude hasn't affected the above thoughts.)

We now have some 2,500 full-time staff employees at the University of Washington, and we have just started to grow. It is difficult to visualize the future. The birth rate for the State of Washington doubled, beginning about 1945. What an impact there will be about 1963 and thereafter! What problems for Personnel! Four years ago there were four or five employees in Machine Accounting, and now there are fifteen — Manager, Assistant Manager, Technical Assistants, Tabulating Supervisors, Group Leader I, Group Leader II, etc. — begins to sound like the Army of the Wizard of Oz. And, of course, no employee's salary is really competitive. It is a good thing that man does not live by bread alone, that there are still student wives, and that the number of married students is increasing steadily.

The personnel field is certainly a stimulating one, and we college and university personnel people are fortunate that we have an organization such as CUPA to guide us as we grow and as we increase in respect for ourselves in the exciting years that lie ahead.

The Irrepressible Issues Of The 60's

ADOLF A. BERLE, JR.

"We are fortunate in having a country and a system technically and physically able to produce material goods enough for everyone, beyond the dreams of our grandfathers. Do we also have spiritual and intellectual resources capable of mobilizing this enormous heritage?"

Educators and teachers are today facing a severe trial. They are no longer accorded the protection of an ivory tower. Results are expected from them. If, in the next few years, the United States encounters trouble or disaster, at home or abroad, educators are likely to be held partly, perhaps even primarily, responsible.

Quite plainly, we are approaching the end of an era. In the savage, implacable world drawing nearer to America every hour, new demands are made on our human resources. The added freight alone of a population which will increase by one hundred millions or so in the next generation, would give strain enough. We shall also be under bitter attack from other civilizations. Briefly, we have a single choice: renaissance or regression. The first means triumph, and the attainment of a splendid, new plateau. The other means defeat, with unknown consequences. A perilous share of the burden in making the choice and achieving the renaissance rests on the institutions of higher education.

College presidents and classroom professors are not used to being treated like politicians. Insensibly almost, they have moved from staff headquarters to the firing line. They are likely to occupy that position for a good while. So we had best get used to it, understand what is wanted of us, take inventory of our own resources, and prepare to meet some very precise demands.

My belief is that the United States will have reverses, possibly serious ones, in the next few years. In part these will be ascribed to the failures of the government. Secondarily, it will be charged that the universities of the country, as its intellectual general staff, failed to prepare the country to take the necessary preventative measures. But at the same time, universities will be expected to supply the ideas, the analysis, the measures and even the men to meet any current emergency in almost any field.

Specifically, I think:

First. Within the next two or three years there will be an economic recession; I cannot forecast its proportion. It could come as soon as late summer, 1960. It seems certain before, say, mid-1963.

Second. In foreign affairs there

Address delivered to the Opening General Session of the Fifteenth National Conference on Higher Education, sponsored by the Association for Higher Education, Chicago, March 6, 1960 by Adolf A. Berle, Jr., Professor of Law, Columbia University. Reprinted in THE JOURNAL by special permission of Professor Berle.

will be turbulence. This could come any time. The Summit Conference this spring will not be a love-feast. It may well prove the most dangerous crisis since World War II. As one result the United States will be compelled either to lead or to follow in a reconstruction of the world economic system, or at any rate, of a big regional economic system.

Third. Either separately or in connection with both these events, there will be an American moral crisis. Included in it will be a demand that Americans generally stop their self-indulgence, develop a far higher degree of personal conscientiousness, accept great engagements toward common effort looking towards a better civilization both here and in other parts of the earth. There will be insistence on a new era of intense personal responsibility, resting on every man, woman and child, in every expression of life.

It is not possible to suggest the particular incidents which will spark any of these crises. Conditions are such that any of a number of things might happen, triggering an explosion in national life or international affairs. A tiny local incident illustrates. We have just rediscovered the old institution of private bribery now known as "payola". This has already crystallized a general question: How honest — or how crooked — is our system of mass communication? Have our advertising media become a moral menace? Where and why did the motivations go wrong? Is there a connection between cheating in school, misreporting on income tax returns and corruption in commercial and public life? Inevitably it will be asked, where have parents, teachers, professors, schools and colleges been all this time? None of this is fanciful, and you all know it. The Association of Higher Education is meeting some of these questions now.

A second, more striking, evil may shortly come up. This is the notion, now tolerated in some quarters, of commercially "planned" or "designed" obsolescence. This means manufacturing machines, appliances, cars or other products so designed that after a limited length of time they will go to pieces, wear out, become obsolete, or otherwise unusable. Obsolescence can be hastened by other methods, for example, marketing propaganda, or failure to provide maintenance service. The purpose, of course, is to force consumers to buy the product oftener than necessary, each time, of course, at a profit to the manufacturer. At best the result is organized waste. At worst it falls uncomfortably close to sabotage or cheating. The resulting moral approach easily becomes applied to innocent as well as guilty corporations and business organizations whose operations are the country's supply line. The results could be profound. The profit motive is a useful economic incentive toward getting things done. But if this sort of thing can be included in the commercial value system, the danger is obvious. The question will arise, where were the men trained who accept this perversion of values?

Simultaneously, there has recently been a sudden discovery that a number of countries are doing a better job of education than seems to be true here. In some cases, other systems produced better quality of top brains in research and administration. In other cases, greater quantity in technical training was achieved.

At the top of the scale, it is apparent we are not training enough scientists. In technical fields, we are not training enough engineers. Despite severe limitation of medical education and the high standing accorded it, the number of students seeking to enter medical schools is beginning to drop off, although we need more doctors. It so happens that in these, and other fields, students have to be willing to do hard, disciplined and exact work. Somehow they have been diverted. Education and training, or at least its rewards, it was thought, could be effortlessly acquired, without the grueling labor involved in mastering any subject, or the dedication needed to push out into new ground. We are discovering that America is entering a period of great national stress and of unlimited international rivalry, without adequate resources of trained and responsible men at all levels. That discovery has already led to an uproar, directed at educational institutions all the way from top to bottom. It has not died down.

Each successive realization that the quality of American life and American intellectual effort must be far tougher, far better disciplined and far more productive will bring more criticism of our educational system, from parents to graduate faculties. The only question is how long it must last before something really gets done. At the moment, we are still listening to the old siren songs. Possibly we can find a cheap and easy way out by television teaching. Perhaps shifting administrative patterns will be enough. Possibly raising teachers' salaries all along the line will change the picture. Maybe personal purpose can be instilled by mass media, and paid for by complaisant advertisers. And so forth. Everyone knows the list of panaceas, from capsule textbooks (sold at a profit) to high-minded basketball teams, or adult education in painless installments. Devices run all the way from true-false examinations marked by clerks to centralized psychlogical testing.

I am not attacking any of these things as such. Probably some can learn something by television. Perhaps true-false testing can contribute something to evaluation of a student's character and work. I like sports, though I regret that only a tiny fraction of students get a chance to engage in them. But none of this can possibly do much toward development of individual character, dedicated to putting something into our civilization, and not merely toward getting the most out of it. Nor will it replace the limitless influence of parents and teachers who devote their efforts to the personal development of their children and students. Machines and mechanics do not make values. Honor and truth are not products of aptitude adjustment. Purpose cannot be inspired by IBM machines. Love and devotion are not synthetic forms of address: they are lambent flames. The aggregate of all the results will be the nation that is America, entrusted in its youth to teachers and scholars, whom we must serve. But of this comes national purpose, and international success or failure in the greatest era history has yet recorded. What this shall be, and how produced, is the crucial problem in every walk of life.

The issues we have to meet in the next few years all arise, I think, out of this central problem. Let us confront it, squarely, without fear and without favor. It splits into several divisions. The

first is far and away the greatest and deepest, for it is essentially philosophical. The second is social and fixes the direction of current politics. The third raises problems of technique and organization — the level at which most of us have to work.

In the first and deepest issue, universities and American intellectuals have, it is clear, been running away from the greatest and most constant of all human issues. This is, quite simply, whether life has an enduring significance, or whether it is an anarchy of chance, meaning nothing. Properly, this should have been the concern of the Departments of Philosophy in our universities. Yet so far as I recall, the last great study of eternal values in the United States was published by Hugo Muensterberg of Harvard — who died in 1916. Nor have historians and social scientists filled the gap, though some of them have tackled fragments of it. England's Toynbee has had the courage to make the attempt to make a philosophy of history, whether one agrees with it or not. Sociologists describe — and commonly let it go at that. Economists set out the result of human wants. None of these have dealt with the primary question of values.

As a student of the American business and financial machine, I know that without an accepted system of values as base the economic system simply cannot be sound. We can play, as our statisticians must do, that production of plastic balloons is no less "productivity" than building cathedrals or developing first-rate housing. But we all know better. We can, and our figures do, classify the ten billions a year Americans spend on liquor as of equal value to the ten billions they spend on education. But we know that the comparison is discreditable. We know that taxes paid for necessary work, from roads to schools, are a way of buying something infinitely important, and we know the same amount of money spent privately on luxuries or diversion takes lesser rank of importance. Yet we are content to let go, without challenge, the idea that taxes are a form of robbery — while inflated instalment charges collected by finance companies for anything from mink coats to summer vacations on pay-later plans can be considered sound bargains. The best brains in the country, which I still think are represented in our universities, must be saying with bluntness what things are first and first rate, and what are secondary and second rate, and what are discreditable, and due to be discarded. Bluntly, universities everywhere ought to concern themselves with a moral order. In academic lingo this is called a value system.

The second group of issues necessarily relates to politics and social organization. Obviously, these cannot be met unless there is general consensus on values.

Here I think the unsung American public at this moment is far ahead of its politicians, even ahead of the public expressions of its teachers and college presidents.

Most Americans realize that the greatest values come not from personal pleasure or profit, but from contributions made to the community, the country, and the progress of humanity. They know quite well that education comes ahead of transient luxuries. They know that the running gear of business is justified not by its profit, but because it meets human needs. Profit is essential, but secondary. They

know there is more to a job than the paycheck, essential as the paycheck is, but that a paycheck without a real job is a form of poorhouse. So they want a system providing stable employment. They also want the jobs to mean active participation in civilization and in life. They want an economics that does not accept slums as a necessary condition of housing. They want business that does not organize waste at consumers' expense, and they understand quite well that "planned obsolescence" is either cheating or waste, or both. In other words, they want an organization of affairs that realizes, instead of violates, their value system.

All this adds up to two things. It means that the United States must produce more. Also, that she must plan or guide her economy.

I know the gust of abuse that comes from saying this. Classical economists talk about the road to serfdom — but they don't live in New York's Harlem or in Chicago's Cicero. Chambers of Commerce mouth old clichés about free enterprise. But they do not induce their members to make ice chests that will last, or prevent mass medium advertising from peddling class-symbols instead of well-made products, or show us how slums will be cleared. Social advice from these quarters will be more impressive when they are doing the job better.

Planning a democratic economy at bottom is a straightforward matter. It means providing a place where certain decisions can be made. The decisions settle what activities are most important, what are less important, what are non-essential, and what can be let go. This is the economic expression of the value system we have been talking about. High on this list comes health, education, scientific research. Close behind transportation and communications, staple commodities like food, basic materials like steel, copper, oil. Then, adequate housing, heavy consumer goods, and then the soft goods. I am not trying to make a list: make your own. The community will decide what it wants, under the guidance of the best thinking available to it.

Many of these needs are adequately met. Many are not. The job of the planner is to steer enough of the goods and services produced in this country towards meeting the list in order of their importance.

Are we doing this now? We have, for example, quite recently committed many tens of billions of government money to building roads. This helps motor cars and motor travel. Did we need this more than we needed a program of education and health — which we are told we cannot afford? On the private side we commit more than twelve billions to buying motor cars. Should not an equivalent sum be steered into slum clearance? If we want both slum clearance and twelve billions worth of motor cars, should we not increase our productivity and put some of it where there is real need?

This places new burdens on our economists and our social scientists. It puts new obligations on businessmen. A good beginning would be abandonment of the style racket in cars and household appliances which organize waste rather than provide honest service. Politicians will have to meet the issue in the coming campaign. Elected officials will have to deal with it when in office.

The issue of guiding the economy so that it will increasingly realize an honorable, effective and civilized

value system is dimly understood by everyone. It awaits the solid academic and political work that will make it real.

One touch of economic emergency will explode all this into a set of immediate fighting political issues. Then, politics becomes rough and personal. The system comes under fire — but the attacks are leveled against the men in positions of power, and responsibility and influence, for sins of commission and of omission, often unjustly; at this stage personal scapegoats are sought and found. So it was in 1930, and so it can easily be again.

I hold it the task of the universities, guardians of our intellectual dynamo, to give definition, form and intellectual leadership in developing the new social concepts and the new measures we obviously need.

The last level — providing technique and personnel is in some ways as profound as the philosophical problem. Through our school system every effective American must pass. From it are supplied, at every level, from top to bottom, the men and women whose individual efforts and whose combined opinion give direction to American national purpose. Out of the school system come the men who think and study and write, who push the world into new fields, intellectual and spiritual. From it also come the captains, the lieutenants, the engineers, the maintenance crews and the operating crews. They supply the men who must plan and direct the campaigns and conduct the continuous operations of life, civilian and, if necessary, military; and the men whose devotion and responsibility carry out the design to success. As international affairs become more complex, they are likely to have to pilot America towards the emerging stages of regional organization, and in the farther future, perhaps, towards a higher degree of world organization. Their combined resources of character and capacity, from the children coming out of grammar school to the Doctors of Philosophy attacking great problems in social or physical science, will determine what happens. The educational system, in conjunction with their parents, will determine what they are.

We are fortunate in having a country and a system technically and physically able to produce material goods enough for everyone, beyond the dreams of our grandfathers. Do we also have spiritual and intellectual resources capable of mobilizing this enormous heritage? We are at long last learning that this cannot and will not be decently done by Madison Avenue, or smart sales campaigns, or political quackery. From our education we are entitled to have a product of graduates who know this, and who cannot be fooled into false values by the monkey-business of public relations counsel.

All this means a value system. It means teachers who teach according to that system. It means a public life carried on in that system. It requires men who would rather not be in office than get office by false promises, or by promising to support measures they believe are unsound, or who, once in office, want merely to coast from election to election. It means judging statements with fearless honesty. It means social engineers at all levels, who act with the integrity of trustees. It means lawyers (by trade I am a lawyer) who use their technique to secure justice and honorable arrangements, instead of peddling influence.

A Way To Verify Your Classification Plan

CHARLES T. CLARK

The results of a classification study at The University of Texas were very gratifying, especially to members of the personnel staff. The big question which everyone asked was, "Since less than 10 per cent of the jobs were studied, how can you be confident that the results of the sample can be taken as representative of all 6,500 jobs?" You will find the answer interesting and helpful.

I know of no personnel officer who hasn't asked himself many times, "how good is my classification plan?" This isn't an easy question to answer, but finding the right answer can be very important.

Even the best classification plans have an unfortunate way of getting out-of-date almost as soon as they are set up. If you are staffed adequately enough to have skilled technicians who work constantly with your plan to check it and improve it, you may still have built-in defects that tend to get worse as time passes. In spite of all the conscientious application of your best know-how, you must face the question sooner or later of getting an unbiased, outside look at your plan. Such a study, if you have it done by outside consultants, can be very expensive.

The University of Texas operates six classification plans, one at each of its component institutions. These plans include more than 6,500 non-teaching employees. When the University Administration was faced with the need to test the validity of its classification plans last year, they quickly saw that it would be very expensive to have someone from the outside come in and make a thorough study of all 6,500 jobs. The most conservative estimate of the cost was five dollars per job, a total cost of $32,500.

After some debate, it was decided to approach the problem using standard statistical sampling techniques. Sampling, while used quite extensively in many fields, such as marketing and production quality control, seems often to be overlooked as a device that can be useful to the personnel administrator.

Rather than to study all 6,500 jobs, the University contracted with the Texas Employment Commission for a verification study of position classification at The University of Texas, using a random sample of less than 10 per cent of the total.

Selection Of Positions

Six-hundred-and-two positions on the six campuses were selected for study. The selection was made by numbering all jobs from one to 6,500 and then selecting the sample using a table of random numbers.

Dr. Clark serves as System Personnel Advisor, The University of Texas. He is currently President-Elect of the College and University Personnel Association.

This method of selection insured a sample free from bias, and neither the University personnel staff nor the analysts from the Texas Employment Commission could be accused of selecting jobs which they thought would or would not be controversial. It was agreed beforehand that if either group felt that the sample selected was not representative, that it would be discarded and another drawn. The greatest advantage of the random method of selection was seen at the meeting of supervisors when it was announced which jobs would be studied. An explanation of the method of selection was sufficient to forestall most questions and all objections as to why some jobs were chosen for study and not others. Even the employees involved were willing to abide by the arrangement when it was explained to them.

The study began with the completion of job evaluation questionnaires and, in instances where the information on the questionnaires was incomplete, or where other questions arose, desk audits were made to secure the necessary information, as well as to verify the original information on the questionnaire form. Copies of current classification manuals, organization charts, lists of classified employees, and other background materials were provided the audit staff by each of the campus personnel officers.

Validation Process

The validation process included four principal steps:

1. The questionnaires were checked against the list of positions selected for the study to insure that no job was overlooked. Once the sample was selected, it was followed rigidly.

2. The questionnaires for each institution were grouped according to classification title.

3. The questionnaires and related class specifications were reviewed, analyzed and compared on the basis of the following factors: kind of work performed; level of difficulty; supervision given; supervision received; skills, knowledges, and abilities required; education and training required; and responsibilities involved.

The analysis and comparison process resulted in the questionnaires being segregated as follows:

a. Those positions which apparently were classified correctly.

b. Those positions which apparently were not classified correctly.

c. Those positions which were classified correctly where revision or amendment of the related class specification was desirable.

d. Those questionnaires which could not be processed without an audit.

4. Audits were conducted where necessary at each of the component institutions by a trained job analyst.

Results Of Analysis

The results of the analysis of the questionnaires and the audits are shown in the following table:

Institution	*Per Cent Apparently Classified Correctly*
The University of Texas Main University and Central Administration	95.6
The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Hospital and Tumor Institute	98.0

The University of Texas Medical Branch	98.9
The University of Texas Southwestern Medical School	94.7
The University of Texas Dental Branch	86.7
Texas Western College	100.0
Over-all	96.8

Conclusions

Based on the results of this objective study, the consultants were able to make the following statements about job classification at The University of Texas:

1. In an exceptionally high percentage of cases included in this study — almost 97 per cent — jobs were allocated to proper classifications in the respective classification plans.

2. With respect to appropriateness or correctness of classification, it was found that there were as many jobs in the study which were "under-classified" as were found "over-classified".

3. In instances in which positions appeared to be incorrectly classified, it should be pointed out that the gradual changes in duty assignments which frequently occur in most jobs may pass unnoticed, even though in the aggregate they constitute a basis for reclassification. For this and other related reasons, it would be highly improbable that *all* of the positions in any system or organization as large or as complex in function as The University of Texas would ever be properly classified at any one time.

The results of this study were gratifying, of course, to the Administration, and especially to the members of the personnel staff, of the University. But the big question which everyone asked was, "Since less than 10 per cent of the jobs were studied, how can you be confident that the results of the sample can be taken as representative of all 6,500 jobs?"

Fortunately this question can be very confidently answered by computing a simple measure of sampling error known as the *standard error of the per cent.** This measure takes into account the size of the sample both as a number and as a per cent of the total. In this case, it was possible to say, with 95 per cent confidence, that 96.8 per cent of the jobs in the University System were correctly classified, plus or minus only 1.3 per cent probable error. In other words, it was possible to state that because of the random sampling techniques used, the likelihood of having less than 95.5 per cent of all 6,500 of the jobs correctly classified was very small. It is just as likely that 98.1 per cent of the total would be correct.

It was felt that the sample was large enough to point out most of the job classes and organizational areas needing additional study by the University's own job analysts. This, together with the renewed confidence in the classification system engendered by the study, made the verification study worthy of regular, periodic application as a useful personnel tool.

---

*Standard error of the per cent $= \sqrt{\dfrac{(96.8)\ (3.2)}{602} \cdot \dfrac{6500 - 602}{6499}} = .67$

It can be said with 95.45 per cent confidence that the per cent of the universe (total number of jobs) will be sample per cent (96.8 per cent) plus or minus two standard errors of the per cent (1.33 per cent) or from 95.5 per cent to 98.1 per cent.

An Analysis Of Retirement Benefits Paid By Industrial Pension Plans

SHELTON F. KING

In preparing this study, the author sent 100 letters to top-flight industrial corporations, analyzed 78 pension plans, and selected 41 non-contributory plans best adapted to uniform comparison. Personnel administrators of colleges and universities can compare the industrial pension benefits tabulated with those provided by their own plans. The pension pattern now developing in industry will ultimately come to the campus.

This study is presented in an effort to provide college and university personnel and financial administrators with factual information regarding industrial pension benefits paid under the terms of 41 non-contributory negotiated or unilateral pension plans.

The pension plans reviewed in this study are those of representative employers in major industries including, but not imited to, steel manufacture and fabrication, the automobile and aircraft industry, mining, lumbering, meat packing and chemicals, electrical manufacturing, tobacco growing and processing, the petroleum industry, etc. Typical of the companies who participated are Allis-Chalmers, North American Aviation, Monsanto Chemical Company, Kennecott Copper Corporation, Lockheed Aircraft Corporation, Chrysler Corporation, Ford Motor Company, Boeing Aircraft, Glenn L. Martin Company, Weyerhauser Company, Olin Mathieson Company.

The total number employed by the 41 companies whose plans were used is 1,900,000 plus. To assemble the material for this study, we asked the top one hundred companies as shown in the October, 1958 issue of *Fortune* for copies of their pension plan and permission to use them in this comparison.

Seventy-eight of those asked responded favorably. The 41 plans which we eventually used were selected on the basis of being non-contributory and adaptable to being translated into our table of comparisons.

We selected non-contributory plans as being representative of the stiffest kind of competition in the area of the pension fringe benefit, because it is free to the employee and makes no inroads on his take-home pay. By comparison most colleges and universities which have pension plans for staff pro-

Mr. King is Personnel Officer at the Carnegie Institute of Technology, and is currently serving the Association as 1960 Conference Host. His report on retirement benefits paid by industrial pension plans was prepared at the request of the Association's Committee for Research.

COMPARISON OF INDUSTRIAL RETIREMENT BENEFITS BASED ON AN ANALYSIS OF FORTY-ONE INDUSTRIAL PENSION PLANS

		Monthly Pensions			
Years of Service	Final or Average Monthly Salary	High Pension	Low Pension	Prevailing Pension	Average Pension
30	$250.00	$150.00 (1)	$45.00 (3)	$75.00 (18)	$70.02
	300.00	171.00 (1)	45.00 (3)	75.00 (16)	73.01
	350.00	210.00 (1)	45.00 (1)	75.00 (16)	77.02
	400.00	240.00 (1)	45.00 (2)	75.00 (18)	83.57
25	250.00	125.00 (1)	37.50 (3)	62.50 (18)	58.68
	300.00	150.00 (1)	37.50 (3)	62.50 (16)	61.78
	350.00	175.00 (1)	37.50 (3)	62.50 (16)	64.62
	400.00	200.00 (1)	37.50 (3)	62.50 (18)	70.08
20	250.00	100.00 (1)	26.50 (1)	50.00 (18)	47.43
	300.00	120.00 (1)	30.00 (4)	50.00 (16)	49.92
	350.00	140.00 (1)	30.00 (4)	50.00 (16)	52.25
	400.00	160.00 (1)	30.00 (3)	50.00 (18)	56.67
15	250.00	75.00 (1)	15.00 (1)	37.50 (18)	35.58
	300.00	90.00 (1)	15.00 (1)	37.50 (16)	37.36
	350.00	105.00 (1)	20.00 (1)	37.50 (16)	38.89
	400.00	120.00 (1)	22.50 (3)	37.50 (18)	41.78
10	250.00	61.60 (1)	00.00 (4)	25.00 (17)	22.47
	300.00	65.00 (1)	00.00 (4)	25.00 (15)	25.47
	350.00	70.00 (1)	00.00 (4)	25.00 (15)	26.67
	400.00	80.00 (1)	00.00 (4)	25.00 (17)	28.63

NOTE: Bracketed figures indicate the number of plans which pay the benefit shown in the adjacent column.

vide for employee participation in the premium.[1]

Many of the retirement systems included in this study also provide supplementary contributory plans which enable the employees to provide for additional pension, but the negotiated plans are non-contributory.

It may seem pointless to compare the pension benefits of the steel, auto, or any other major industry, with those of colleges and universities, but one has only to trace to their source the origins of the five-day week, the eight-hour day, shift differential, overtime pay, Workman's Compensation, insurance, etc., to realize that what is occurring in industry today will (with regard to staff personnel policies) be to some extent approximated on the campus tomorrow.

In considering the figures shown in the accompanying table, it should be borne in mind that the monthly pension is that amount payable to the employee upon retirement at the end of ten to thirty years of credited service after August of 1958, as these figures are based on current formulas.

Because practically all of the plans have been previously amended one or more times to provide increased benefits, it was not practical to base the comparison on past practice. As it is, several of the plans considered have since been changed by recent negotiations to permit larger monthly pensions than those shown.

The following paragraphs explain the several parts of the comparison.

Years Of Service

Years of service includes the years of *credited* service that may be counted towards a retirement benefit. Most plans begin pension payments after ten years of service, and many limit the maximum allowable credit to thirty years.

Final Or Average Monthly Salary

In pay plans where earnings are a factor in determining benefits, two methods predominate:

1. Final monthly or annual salary;
2. Average earnings either on the basis of total employment or for a specific or optional period during the work span.

The four salary grades used here were selected, because we felt that they offered the best comparison to college and university staff salaries.

High Pension

"High Pension" refers to the highest monthly benefit paid in a given category. In this comparison, the high pension in all cases is that paid by a single employer, whose plan is considerably more liberal than any of the others.

Low Pension

"Low Pension" means the lowest benefit paid in each category for an equal amount of salary and service. The low figure for the ten-year service period is not a pension at all, because four of the plans do not provide pension benefits for less than fifteen years of service.

Prevailing Pension

The bracketed figures to the right of this column (and the two preceding columns) are the number of plans which pay the benefit

1. College and University Personnel Association: Personnel Practices in Colleges and Universities, 1958, page 88.

shown on the left and are, for the most part, negotiated rather than unilateral. The formula for determining benefits in these plans is two dollars and fifty cents ($2.50), multiplied by the number of years of credited service at retirement. It should be noted that these plans do not discriminate on the basis of earnings, but consider service only in benefit determination.

Average Pension

"Average Pension" is a simple average of benefits payable under all of the 41 plans studied and clearly illustrates the advantage of the earnings/service plan over the "service only" to those employees in the higher earnings groups.

In determining pension amounts, only that portion of the pension actually paid by the employer is used. Some of the plans studied are integrated, that is, they use a partial or total offset of the primary Social Security benefit, but this benefit is not included, because it is not used in the prevailing plans.

Since the plans studied represent current commitments to almost two million industrial employees, we feel that these figures provide an accurate picture of what the industrial employee may expect in the way of retirement benefits — especially so, since the negotiated plans which predominate in the "Prevailing Pension" are samples of industry-wide bargaining patterns.

We, therefore, feel that these figures may be of some use to college administrators, particularly those in industrial areas, in evaluating campus staff retirement programs in the light of off-campus competition.

For whatever help in understanding the current industrial retirement benefit potential this brief study may be to CUPA members, we are indebted to the major companies and corporations who submitted their retirement plans for review.

The Evaluation Of The Use Of Tests In The Selection Of Secretarial Personnel

ALEX BEDROSIAN
FRANK H. LEWIS

The authors of this article concern themselves with what institutions of higher education can do in a practical way to improve their techniques in the selection of nonacademic employees, and most encouraging is their conclusion that their program has been worth while.

The initial step in improving the quality of any secretarial staff is proper selection of personnel. Since July 1, 1957, Newark College of Engineering has conducted a program to effect this desirable objective. Recognizing that subjective analysis, solely, was a poor determinant of proper placement, the Administration and the Counseling Center jointly proposed a program which would minimize guesswork in the selection procedure. Prior to this arrangement employees were hired on the basis of recommendations from secondary schools, private secretarial schools, and acquaintances of the applicants. These recommendations were frequently augmented by practical typing and stenographic tests. Rarely was the applicant's ability and aptitude related to the position sought. The result, at times, was dissatisfaction on the part of the department and an unhappy employee.

Mr. Bedrosian and Mr. Lewis are both members of the staff of Newark College of Enineering, where Mr. Bedrosian serves as Assistant Dean of Administration and Dr. Lewis is Director of the Counseling Center. The program described in this article is based on a two-year study.

Cognizant of the fact that individuals differed markedly in their range of ability, and that this range in some instances was so wide that the type of person selected oftentimes reflected a wide range in the amount and quality of work produced, the following selection process was initiated for all new applicants:

1. Brief interview with college personnel officer;
2. Completion of application blank (if applicant appeared to lack the basic qualifications of the position, as determined from the initial interview and a review of the completed application blank, she was excused from further consideration);
3. Interview with Director of Counseling Center;
4. Completion of battery of aptitude tests (to be described later) in the Counseling Center conducted by the College Psychometrist;
5. Brief evaluation entered on applicant's test profile sheet which was submitted to the personnel officer;
6. Relationship of applicant's abilities and aptitudes to the position available was then determined;

7. After successful completion of the above, the applicant was interviewed by the employing department.

How successful has this procedure been? Have the results of this new program substantiated its continuation? The purpose of this study was to specifically answer these questions and, in general, to present an overview of the program's effectiveness.

Such a program seemed to offer a more objective approach to the selection of employees than was heretofore available. For example, the battery of tests offered several advantages:

1. An unbiased opinion of an applicant's capabilities could be obtained with a minimum of difficulty;

2. Such information could prevent a charge of discrimination in selection of employees;

3. Test results could oftentimes reveal the applicant's shortcomings, and this would provide information to the personnel officer so that he could either point up these inadequacies to the applicant or forewarn the prospective supervisor that the applicant, if hired, should bear careful scrutiny in certain areas if only temporarily;

4. Test results could avert placing a person of too high qualification in a position where no challenges could be met, or the placing of a person with insufficient ability in a position where difficulty could be encountered.

The Personnel Office has on file a list of job descriptions, one for each secretarial and clerical staff position. These job descriptions are requested of the department supervisors by the Personnel Office and are revised from time to time to be consistent with possible changing requirements and reallocation of duties. It is customary for the description to be completed by the secretary with the assistance of the department chairman. The completed description is then used by the personnel officer in describing to prospective employees the duties the position would involve.

Test Batteries

It was determined that three general areas should be explored by means of tests or inventories. The areas selected were: (1) general intelligence; (2) clerical speed and accuracy; (3) aptitude for verbal types of clerical work; and (4) personality.

The following are the names of the tests selected, a brief description of each, and the reasons for selection:

1. *Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability.* This is a verbal type intelligence test that was selected because it was believed that this would be a fair measure of a potential stenographer's intelligence. It is of short duration, and the results are easily obtained.

2. *The General Clerical Test, Parts I and III - Psychological Corporation.* Part I of this test measures a person's speed and accuracy in checking material and in filing. Part III of this test embodies four measures: (1) ability to spell; (2) reading skills; (3) vocabulary; and (4) English grammar. Sections of this test are all relatively short. Both parts of the test, including time for directions, can be completed within 30 minutes.

3. *Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.* This personality inventory was selected because of the characteristics measured, the

relatively simple directions, and the ease of scoring. Particular attention was paid to such characteristics as general activity, emotional stability, friendliness, and personal relations. Upon occasion some of the other factors, because of their nature, were taken into consideration. This test can be completed by the average person within a period of 30 - 45 minutes. Thus, it can be seen that the entire battery used would take, except in rare cases, not longer than two hours.

This procedure has now been in operation for more than two years and a comparison was made of the results of the tests used between those individuals accepted and those rejected:

1. The average intelligence quotient of those accepted was 109.5; of those rejected, the average was 95.9. This is significant at the one per cent level.

2. The average score on the speed and accuracy sections of the General Clerical Test of those accepted was 49.3; of those rejected, 43.2. This is significant at the one per cent level.

3. Of the sections dealing with verbal clerical aptitude, the average score was 74 of those accepted; of those rejected, the average score was 57. This, again, is significant at the one per cent level.

4. Little or no difference could be found in the personalities of the two groups. In every case, however, the personality traits were studied rather carefully, and this particular inventory was found to be of great assistance in placing persons in specific assignments.

Unfortunately, vacancies occur throughout the year, and frequently the supply of candidates is limited. For this reason, there were times when individuals were engaged who did not fit all requirements, but the information obtained did help in the selection of the best available person for the position. In filling vacancies the following factors, among others, were considered:

1. The department to which the person would be assigned;

2. The job description of the job to be filled;

3. The nature of the work required;

4. The immediate supervisor involved (supervisors vary in personality).

Findings

The low turnover in secretarial and clerical personnel at the College in the past two years attests to the remarkable success of the program. It should be re-emphasized, however, that the tests were not the sole determinant of selection, but, when used in conjunction with such standard devices as the personal interview and practical typing and stenographic tests, they were invaluable. In addition to the remarkably low turnover in personnel, there was a marked improvement in employee morale.

Another indication of the success of the program was that a number of departments requested the same procedure be used in the selection of general clerical help; in the selection of bookstore personnel; and, most important, in the selection of junior members for the administrative staff of the College. The success in these areas has been equally as good as the selection of employees for the secretarial staff. Variations in the tests and inventories selected were, of course, necessitated by the different work levels involved.

Three Ring Circus

GEORGE H. ADAMS

What is so difficult about the conduct of labor relations? Why do university personnel programs need the services of a Labor Relations Officer? What are his qualifications?

My duties are those of Labor Relations Officer for the University of Illinois' Chicago Professional Colleges. These institutions are comprised of the College of Medicine, with its Research and Educational Hospitals, and the Dental, Pharmacy, and Nursing Colleges of the University. I also do labor relations counselling work at the Chicago Undergraduate Division, it being separate and distinct from the Professional Colleges and located across the city.

Now, all this sounds simple enough, because everyone knows, or should know, that the very nomenclature, "Labor Relations Officer," indicates that the incumbent conducts, or should conduct, labor relations. After all, what is so difficult about the conduct of labor relations? In many industrial enterprises, most any Vice President's son-in-law can be placed in the Labor Relations Department. (This, of course, is one of the principal reasons why management usually comes out on the short end of the deal!) But it should be much easier in an institution of higher learning, where the objective of the academic staff members, at least, is, or should be, to impart knowledge, and of the students, to acquire that knowledge. So why a Labor Relations Officer?

Mr. Adams serves as Labor Relations Officer at the Chicago Professional Colleges of the University of Illinois, as well as serving in a counselling capacity for labor relations at the Chicago Undergraduate Division of the University. He comes to the University with an extensive labor relations background in industry, and his comments, while presented in an amusing and sometimes flippant manner, are based on "hard-facts" acquired through practical experience.

Why A Labor Relations Officer?

Once his existence is justified, does it not appear logical to think that such a functionary attached to an institution of higher learning would have little to do? In fact, one might even think that it would practically be a *retirement-to-an-easy-chair* sort of job, and anyone lucky enough to land it would be *quids in,* as my British friends would say. Perhaps that is what I thought, but wait. . . .

Only after I had taken this job a couple of years ago did I have driven home to me that institutions of higher learning have a third extremely important and vocal personnel element. Yes, in addition to students and instructors, there is that body of humanity most commonly identified as nonacademic personnel. At University of Illinois branches, where I exercise my incumbency and counselling activities, this body is made up of men and women working in many classifications. They run from

Laborer to the highly skilled Medical Technologist, many of the latter being proud possessors of Master's degrees in chemistry, biology, and assorted other sciences, as well as a goodly number of opinions regarding their rights, privileges, etc. Nonacademic personnel employees number around 2,200. They are represented by 18 organized labor unions, with some employees, such as clerks and stenographers, remaining unorganized. But this did not scare me. My most recent previous employment in my field consisted of conducting labor relations in two languages and an Indian dialect with 17,000 persons represented by 29 unions.

Three Ring Circus

Little did I know that upon entering the service of the University of Illinois that I would immediately become one of the principal ring-masters of what may be facetiously called a *Three Ring Circus*. These rings have to be made to work in unison. To accomplish this, I, figuratively speaking, became the slack wire walker! Some with whom I had to deal were familiar with one ring, or perhaps even two, and it, or they, were the absolute and final regulations, but few knew anything about all three rings, and the fact that they had to enmesh to produce best results.

Relations with nonacademic personnel staff members are governed not only by collective agreements subscribed with their organized labor union bargaining agencies, but they are governed primarily by a rather handy little pink-backed booklet setting forth the *Policy And Rules Relating To Compensation And Working Conditions Of Nonacademic Employees*. But this is only two rings:

Now we come to the third. It is the *University Civil Service System of Illinois*. In another equally handy pamphlet we find the text of the Statute which created the System, and the Rules promulgated pursuant to the Statute for government of the System and those employees working under it.

The "Policy and Rules . . . ", as its full name implies, sets forth working hours and days, vacation policy and allowances, disability benefits, leaves of absence, retirement conditions, seniority rules, and grievance procedures, among other things. The University Civil Service System of Illinois lays down procedures for hiring and terminating employees, disciplinary measures, and other essential rules and regulations far too numerous for mention here. Collective agreements with unions establish wage scales, ranges, and rates, and provide amplification of the provinces of the other two rings of the circus whenever they are permitted to do so.

The systems all came into being at different times. Credit must be given for the wisdom of those responsible for implanting the different systems because, strangely enough, they can be enmeshed and a common denominator evolved, which makes it possible to please some of our nonacademic personnel some of the time! The same can be said to be true of some other staff members. No, one cannot win, but if one breaks even, one is ahead of the game. We try, and, I believe, with quite a lot of success, to break even at the Chicago branches of the University of Illinois.

Despite the fact that the three different systems come in for what is perhaps a just amount of criticism, largely because of unfamili-

arity with all three by all concerned, it has been my experience that all are extremely useful within themselves. However, I believe that their greatest utility comes from the fact that when enmeshed they complement each other. Certainly this is so in the negotiation of collective agreements with organized labor. Much of what that entity chooses to call its demands — but which I insist be denominated proposals or petitions — immediately runs afoul of either or both the "Policy and Rules . . . " or the University Civil Service System of Illinois Statute and Rules. Both of these systems have the character of law insofar as the University is concerned and are not susceptible to alteration by means of union negotiations. The first, of course, may be changed by the Board of Trustees, and the second by legislation (Statute) or by the Merit Board (Rules). But this seems to require a little more work than organized labor has, until now, seen fit to put forth. Consequently, petitions by unions for additional paid holidays and addition of "X" numbers of weeks to the University's paid vacation schedule do not thrive.

Since I am a Labor Relations Officer, I should, I suppose, talk more about labor relations than about the other two rings of the circus. I should also limit my remarks to generalities at our institutions, rather than minutely describing how we conduct such relations with the unions representing our employees, in particular. These are details which no one would probably understand and which might be boresome to those not particularly interested in my specialty. I have just been to a national conference where I got a full measure of boredom inflicted by speakers dwelling upon details. I liked it not. I shall attempt to spare you. Besides, I do not know much about the other two rings. There are already far too many people in the world who talk about things of which they know little or nothing. I know only enough about the University Civil Service System . . . and the "Policy and Rules . . . " to make them work for me in conducting labor relations, but I do not administer them. This is done by qualified members of the staff!

M-o-r-e

Insofar as I can determine, the conduct of labor relations at the University's Chicago branches differs little from the procedures employed by metal mining concerns for whom I previously worked. But before you get the idea that the job is all too easy, let me say one thing. There is no set formula for conducting relations with labor, organized or unorganized. Every negotiation is a separate and distinct affair. This is so even though one negotiates with the same bargaining agent for the same worker classification year after year. This is one of the things making the field so challenging. What was good procedure last year is valueless this year. However, the unions' objective is always the same. It is contained in one simple four-letter word. Fortunately, this word is printable and speakable, even in mixed company. It is spelled m-o-r-e. Its accurate definition means many things—higher wages for less work, shorter hours, and, currently, the introduction of a 32-hour week, among other "mores". The unions do not expect to achieve this shorter week right away. Their talk of it is simply a procedure of conditioning manage-

ment thinking. They are taking a leaf from the book of the national advertisers. This leaf reads, "Tell it to them often enough, and effectively enough, and they will believe it!" This works. If anyone does not think so, just let him hark back to the late unlamented Austrian, galvanized German, house painter. Remember what he did to a nation of eighty million people with the same procedure? So the unions are now using this successful approach. As everyone knows, as well as I, the power of concentrated persuasion is very great. A good example of this conditioning and persuasion was the procedure employed by McDonald, of the Steel Workers. He enjoyed remarkable success in persuading a great number of people, largely his own union members — albeit — that his "billion dollar" package was just the thing. It would leave the country rolling in clover, so to speak. Finally Government, and, lastly, management appeared to believe him. His thesis may, at the time, have been true, and it may continue to be true. However, one cannot help wondering if the clover may not, perhaps, belong to the poison ivy family!

What Makes A Labor Relations Man?

What makes a labor relations man — or a labor negotiator for management? Frankly, I do not know. I doubt if anyone does. Perhaps, similar to what a physician friend told me in explaining why he became a doctor; labor relations men are born, not made. Cyrus Ching, who has become quite well known as a member of the Federal Mediation Conciliation Service says, "I guess you're born with a flair for negotiation. There's a technique all right, but you couldn't put it into words." I got into the field by accident — and it was a crippling accident. After 17 years, I am still around! My physician-instructor friends at the University look at me pitifully and sadly say, "You must be crazy. I wouldn't have your job for any money!" I gaze back, equally as forlornly, and reply, "You became a physician," or, in some cases, "a medical research scientist, didn't you?" So, I guess it is a stand-off.

Most successful labor relations men I have known are good fishermen. It does not necessarily follow, however, that all fishermen are good labor relations men. I would say, nevertheless, that the patience to fish well is a quality which labor men should develop. They must have two outstanding attributes. The first is infinite patience. Temper has no place in labor relations — on either side of the table. The second is the ability to discern and seize opportunity.

Many methods are employed to train labor relations men, and I cannot say which may be the best. But I believe it is highly improbable to make a labor relations man out of just any candidate, just as it is impossible to make a doctor or lawyer under the same circumstance. There are many academic courses, and, I believe, they all provide good background if the foundation exists to receive it.

One difficulty — often of paramount importance — is that labor relations involves dealing with people. The union representatives across the table are just people. I believe, therefore, that the basic tools necessary to the conduct of acceptable labor relations are common sense, straightforwardness, truthfulness, and honesty of procedure. I have always tried to employ these tools as a ringmaster of our Three Ring Circus.

How Healthful Is Exercise?

"A growing body of evidence supports the view that regular exercise at all ages is important to health, but it must fit the individual. . . . Ideally, regular exercise should begin in childhood and continue into old age, with appropriate restrictions at different ages."

If one can judge by the way people talk, probably few health measures are so widely believed in and so royally ignored as regular exercise. In our modern pattern of life, with its preponderance of physically inactive jobs and sedentary recreation, many of us seem to find it next to impossible to schedule active physical pursuits except sporadically — on week ends, for example. So we end up talking about the exercise we "really ought to get," and doing little or nothing about it.

Until recent years, faith in the healthfulness of regular exercise or sports was founded almost exclusively on tradition and the subjective opinions of people who were convinced that exercise made them feel better. In the past decade or so, medical researchers have become increasingly interested in this subject and, though evidence is not conclusive, a number of physicians and investigators have become convinced that lifelong regular exercise can help prolong life, curb overweight, and even put a brake on the current "epidemic" of coronary artery disease and strokes.

This increase in scientific interest has grown quite naturally out of successful use of physical activity in the management of certain medical problems — in speeding the recovery of surgical and maternity patients; preventing phlebitis, clots, embolisms, kidney stones, and loss of calcium from bones in bed patients, restoring physical and mental health to elderly invalids; and rehabilitating those who have had poliomyelitis, strokes, arthritis, accidental injury, and other neurologic and orthopedic disorders.

Another spur to scientific interest in exercise came several years ago from questions raised about the physical fitness of America's young people in relation to national defense. A President's Conference on Fitness of American Youth was called in June, 1956 largely because of a report that about 58 per cent of American children failed certain muscular fitness tests (the Kraus-Weber tests). The resulting controversy over whether such tests actually measure a person's physical fitness focused attention on the fact that experts do not agree even on a definition of physical fitness, or on what kind of exercise or sport is best during different decades of life. Despite large gaps in scientific knowledge about fitness, such prominent authorities as Dr. Paul D. White, President Eisenhower's heart consultant, Dr. Irvine H. Page of the Cleveland Clinic, and Dr. Jean Mayer of the Harvard

Reprinted by special permission from "Consumer Reports," Volume 24, Number 10, October, 1959.

School of Public Health, are militant in their support of regular exercise throughout life.

How much scientific basis do such men as Dr. White have for their belief in the health value of exercise? So far, except for personal observations, they have only fragmentary evidence — a number of laboratory studies of the physiological effects of physical activity and some statistical studies of heart disease in selected population groups.

The Medical Case For Exercise

Much of the laboratory work has been confined to studies of changes in heart function and size during and after exercise. Researchers have learned that systematic exercise tends to reduce blood pressure slightly, increases the pumping efficiency of the heart, and improves oxygen utilization by all the tissues of the body. Dr. Thomas K. Cureton of the University of Illinois, ran a series of tests with former champion athletes who were classified as "in continued training," "moderately active," and "sedentary". He found the first group superior in practically all tests of circulatory efficiency.

Perhaps even more interesting were tests conducted by Dr. Richard W. Eckstein of Western Reserve University, in which the coronary arteries of a group of dogs were surgically narrowed to simulate atherosclerosis of the human coronary artery. Then half the dogs exercised, and half did not. Five to eight weeks later, the exercised group showed definitely more improvement in "collateral circulation" — an increase in tiny blood vessels to bypass the narrowed artery — than did the sedentary group. Many heart specialists believe that moderate, regular exercise will do the same for many patients with coronary artery disease.

Some research has pointed to the view that exercise might also prevent some chronic circulatory ills. Dr. White has personally observed that "a careful program of regular exercise (may retard) the further progress or increase of coronary atherosclerosis." Some experimental and clinical studies have indicated that a lack of physical activity leads to abnormal or accelerated clotting of the blood in coronary, cerebral, and other arteries, as well as in veins. In view of these studies, it has been speculated that sustained activity (i.e., exercise or sport daily or several times a week, throughout the year) may indeed be important in preventing or reducing strokes and coronary heart attacks, whereas spurts of physical activity at intervals in a sedentary life may not. The latter kind of activity may even be harmful, especially if violent.

Other studies have shown that moderate or vigorous exercise can reduce blood cholesterol levels (which often are elevated in atherosclerosis patients). But this effect on blood cholesterol is likely to occur only indirectly, as a result of loss of body weight.

Statistical research on the health values of exercise so far has not been pursued extensively. Early statistical studies in this area compared the life expectancies of college men who had been athletes and those who had not. These studies did not take into account habits of exercise after leaving college, and they failed to show any significant difference between the two groups in age at death or in cause of death. More recently, Drs. Paul D. White and William C. Pomeroy of Los

Angeles studied the statistical relationship between lifelong habits of exercise and the incidence of coronary artery disease in 355 men who had been Harvard football players between 1901 and 1930. Some of these men had had attacks of coronary heart disease, and this group had "engaged in less vigorous exercise than did those without heart disease." Moreover, men in the study who had maintained even moderate habits of exercise were less prone to coronary heart disease than those who had exercised very little.

Perhaps the most important statistical studies of physical activity, health and longevity are those of Dr. J. N. Morris of the British Medical Research Council. He learned that drivers of London's double-decker buses are statistically more likely to die suddenly from coronary thrombosis than their conductor colleagues whose work is more active, and that occupationally sedentary government clerks suffer more often from rapidly fatal coronary artery "infarction" than do postmen. In his latest study, Dr. Morris (with Dr. Margaret D. Crawford) studied post-mortem records of 4,000 men who died in British hospitals. The statistics indicated that those who had been in physically active jobs had a significantly lower incidence of coronary heart disease, that what disease they had was less severe, and that they developed it later than those who had worked at sedentary jobs. Dr. Morris then wondered whether regular physical activity outside work would produce similar correlations. "Plainly," he said, "this is the main implication. . . ." And he concluded, "Regular physical exercise could be one of the 'ways of life' that promote health in middle age and . . . heart disease may be in some degree . . . a deficiency disease" — a deficiency in regular, physical activity throughout life.

Stated so briefly, these research efforts seem much more conclusive than they are. Taken all together, they represent only a smattering of knowledge. Even the laboratory results which show specific physiological effects are difficult to interpret, because our understanding of the relationship between such things as a lowering of blood pressure or of blood cholesterol level and major diseases of our day is far from complete. The statistical studies are, if anything, less definitive; they have not been big enough nor broad enough to rule out coincidence. We particularly need additional studies to parallel those of Dr. Morris in other countries with different social conditions; and there is need for such studies to include factors other than occupation and exercise — weight, and social tensions, for example.

Exercise? Yes, But What Kind?

Pending more thorough research, however, many physicians will agree with Dr. White that "exercise . . . suitable in degree and duration for the particular individual concerned, can and does play a useful role in the maintenance of both physical and mental health. . . ."

A key word in Dr. White's statement is "suitable". Sudden violent exercise, for example, can be disastrous in a previously sedentary middle-aged person, and may be harmful at any age. Severe, sustained exertion often causes depressing fatigue or irritability, particularly if there is inadequate recuperation. And highly competitive sports, especially in persons who care about winning, may cause

excitement, anxiety, frustration, or rage, with resulting disturbance of circulation, and unfavorable changes in blood consistency, hormone production, and other body functions, which may offset the benefits of the exercise.

Suitability may also depend on what a person hopes to gain from exercise. The physiological benefits apparently do not depend necessarily on enjoyment of the activity; in Dr. Morris' studies, there is no reason to suppose that coal miners and other subjects who engaged in heavy physical work gained emotional stimulation or tranquility from their jobs. Thus, conceivably, one might be able to reduce his chances of having a heart attack by engaging in daily calisthenics, housework, or other dull or routine muscular exertion. Most persons, however, need more than that from exercise; they need what Dr. White calls an "antidote for nervous tension and strains, anxiety and mental concentration." This benefit is more likely to be found in such activities as swimming, horseback riding, skating, cycling, walking, dancing and (if the competitive spirit does not get out of hand) golf, tennis, or other sports.

And, of course, suitable physical activity must be geared to a person's age and previous exercise habits. Ideally, regular exercise should begin in childhood and continue into old age, with appropriate restrictions at different ages. But there is no reason why strenuous (as opposed to highly competitive) exercise cannot be continued well past middle age, provided it is engaged in several times a week throughout the year. Anyone who has spent years doing little that is more strenuous than climbing in and out of the family car should, of course, use caution when he undertakes a program of exercise, and he should undertake it only after a complete physical examination and consultation with his family doctor.

CUPA'S Book Shelf

Retirement and Insurance Plans in American Colleges, by William C. Greenough, President of Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America and College Retirement Equities Fund, and Francis P. King, Research Officer of TIAA and CREF, 1959. Columbia University Press, New York, N. Y., 480 pp., $8.50.

An institution's retirement plan is by far the most significant fringe benefit for faculty and staff. Whether it be the Personnel Director or some other administrative officer, someone must be giving constant attention to retirement provisions to make sure that the institution is not in an unfavorable position with respect to recruitment and faculty morale. This book is up-to-date and comprehensive enough to let one know what is being done over the country.

Personnel Officers are normally completely familiar with the retirement programs of their own institutions. Those who attempt to be of real service to the faculty — even beyond the call of duty — to the extent of advising an incoming faculty member how best to handle his former retirement contributions at another institution in relation to the local institution had best have at hand some such book as this. The same would apply when advising a faculty member who is leaving.

The chapter on major medical points out the savings possible from a single comprehensive plan compared with a major medical plan superimposed on a base plan. The unanswered problem here is what to do with staff members, particularly nonacademic in the lower salary brackets, who feel that they cannot afford major medical. To serve everyone it looks as though an institution may find it difficult to limit its health insurance program to one single plan, regardless of savings.

All college administrators who have depended for years on Greenough's "College Retirement and Insurance Plans," published in 1948, will welcome this new volume and appreciate the careful and comprehensive study that has gone into its preparation.

Burt Ames, Director
Employee Personnel Services
University of Florida

Personnel Principles and Policies, by Dale Yoder, 1959. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 599 pp., $6.95.

This volume provides, in textbook form, a non-technical overview of the entire field of personnel management. Despite the enormous amount of ground to be covered in attempting such a task, the author has effectively presented all of the basic material (and much other besides) that is expected in a text of this scope. His method of presentation is philosophical, rather than technical, and he has thus achieved greater coverage than would have been possible in a work in which details were examined at more length.

The material is well organized, and subject areas are complete and succinctly presented, making the text especially usable as a general reference book. The area of Labor Relations is covered in a very thorough manner and should be of interest to readers with little or no experience or training in negotiation, collective bargaining, and other union-management relationships.

The sections which may be of most use to *Journal* readers, and which are of special interest because of their insight and applicability, are those on "Employee Induction and Orientation," "Employee Appraisal" and "Communications in the Work Team".

The case problems presented at the end of each chapter have been used very skillfully by the author to illustrate practical problems arising out of a personnel management situation and will be of interest to all readers.

John W. Blow, Assistant Director
Nonacademic Personnel Services
Auburn University

"Personnel Policies: Framework for Management Decisions," by Ernest C. Miller of Hellwig, Miller and Associates. The Management Review, January, 1960, pp. 20-26.

Because of the multiplicity of details demanding the day-to-day attention of the personnel officer, he often neglects his responsibility for developing written personnel policies applicable to the entire organization. This article states some of the reasons why such personnel policies are important and contains suggestions concerning their formation, application, and revision.

Personnel policies are essential to the successful operation of any enterprise sufficiently large or complex to require several decision-making centers. Policies are not necessarily expressed in writing. Written policies, however, help an organization to achieve consistency and fairness in the treatment of employees. They give assurance that decisions made will be in keeping with the objectives and interests of the organization. They promote efficient operation of the enterprise by permitting delegation of decision-making responsibility to supervisors at lower levels of management.

In developing a written policy, the personnel officer should recognize the limitations of his responsibility. His function is to draft a proposed statement of policy, based on information compiled from the experience of the organization and from accepted personnel practices in the community. This statement should be submitted to line executives for criticism, revision, and approval. Because a personnel policy is a total commitment of the entire organization to act in a specified manner, it should be issued only by the highest-ranking line executive. Participation in the policy-making process by employees at all levels helps to insure the acceptance of policies. Adoption of a definite procedure for the systematic development and communication of personnel policies provides effective control over their form and substance.

Personnel policies should permit exceptions. Otherwise, it is impossible to achieve equity in making decisions. However, authority for making exceptions should be granted only to higher-level executives. The nature of each exception, and the circumstances which justify it, should be stated in writing. A policy administered in this manner assures both flexibility and control. When the interpretation of a policy is questioned, some form of impartial arbitration should be provided. Employees, as well as executives, should be included in the arbitrating panel.

Personnel policies should be revised from time to time. Since they reflect objectives, values, and decision-making criteria, they should change as these elements

change. All who have applied a policy should be asked to criticize it and to suggest revisions. Segments of policy should not be revised without considering the effect on the policy as a whole. Revision is facilitated when all policies are written down in one text, coded, and indexed.

Robert Mears

"Health Care of the Aged: Who Pays the Bill?" by Gaston V. Rimlinger, Lecturer on Business Administration and formerly a member of the Finance Staff, Ford Motor Company. **Harvard Business Review**, January-February, 1960, pp. 108-116.

In the future, it appears inevitable that retired employees must receive more assistance from management in meeting their health costs. This assistance may be provided through voluntary methods, through compulsory measures under the Social Security program, or by a combination of these alternatives.

At present, the combined resources of private pension plans and Social Security are inadequate to permit most retirees to maintain minimum health standards. The gap between needs and resources is growing wider because of the rise in the general price level and, particularly, because of higher medical and hospital costs. For most retirees, health expenses increase with advancing age, while income declines.

Here are a few reasons why the provision of health care for retirees is becoming more urgent: 1. aged population is increasing, both absolutely and in relation to the total population; 2. medical advances have lengthened the life span; 3. changes in social attitudes demand increased concern for the health of the aged; 4. organized labor is placing more emphasis upon the responsibility of management to share the medical expenses of retired workers; and 5. failure of management to act now may hasten the introduction and expansion of compulsory public health programs.

Insurance companies, in recent years, have made a greater effort to provide more adequate health insurance for the aged population, but restrictive clauses in insurance policies often make the extent of such coverage deceptive. Voluntary health insurance for older persons depends not only upon their ability to pay for it, but upon their ability to qualify for such coverage. Private charities and government agencies at all levels assume part of the burden of meeting medical expenses of aged persons. In most cases, however, this assistance is restricted to indigent persons or to limited groups such as disabled war veterans.

The majority of employees participating in company health plans lose this protection when they retire. Among those who retain this form of insurance following retirement, usually at increased cost, it is estimated that 25 per cent accept reductions in benefits. Individual workers should be encouraged to set aside part of their earnings in high-income years in anticipation of medical expenses after retirement.

In spite of the difficulty of predicting the cost of health care at some remote future date, efforts must be made to distribute this cost over the productive life cycle of the individual. Undoubtedly, management must expand company health plans and assume increased

payroll taxes to provide for health benefits under Social Security.

Discussing a topic which has received insufficient attention to date, this article suggests more questions than it answers. Personnel officers and their associations should help to pick up the ball and carry it.

Robert Mears

"New Dimensions in Measuring Morale" by J. R. Glennon, W. A. Owens, W. J. Smith, and L. E. Albright. **Harvard Business Review**, January-February, 1960, pp. 106-107. (Owens is a Professor of Psychology at Purdue University. The co-authors are members of the Research Section, Central Employee Relations Department, Standard Oil Company of Indiana.)

Morale surveys are excellent diagnostic tools for locating and eliminating employee discontent. They can reveal symptoms of potential unrest more promptly than other sources of information, such as turnover statistics, analyses of grievance reports, or labor union activities. Many organizations, however, do not obtain as much benefit as they should from morale surveys. Blind spots appear in the information assembled. Some causes of dissatisfaction seem more important to employees than others. Questionnaires should be constructed, or interviews conducted, in a manner which permits and encourages employees to register this degree of importance.

Survey findings are often interpreted by selecting the items on which the greatest number of employees have expressed dissatisfaction as those most urgently requiring the attention of management. However, it is impossible to determine the urgency of any item without knowing not only how many employees feel dissatisfaction about a given situation, but how strongly they feel this dissatisfaction.

This article shows how to obtain more benefit from a morale survey by applying a simple statistical device described as an "Index of Difference Scores". The index is computed by applying the following formula in analyzing information obtained through questionnaires or interviews: Importance minus Satisfaction equals the Difference Score. The author submits charts showing how to compute the Index of Difference Scores and explains how to use this technique in presenting the results of a morale survey.

Robert Mears

The Pros and Cons of Longevity Pay Plans, by Robert D. Krause, Milwaukee City Service Commission. Personnel Report Number 591, 41 pp. Paper binding. Available from Public Personnel Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois. Price: $2.00 to PPA members; $2.50 list price.

This Report covers in a comprehensive fashion the advantages and disadvantages of longevity pay which the author defines as "extra pay for long service." The author cautions against the view that a longevity pay plan may solve the problems relating to long-term employees, and he appears to favor other methods for recognizing long service. He gives, however, careful attention to the opinions of those who support such a plan.

The report is divided into the following sections:

1. What is Longevity Pay?
2. Current Trends
3. Characteristics of Present Longevity Plans
4. Alternatives to Longevity Pay

5. Basic Longevity Principles
6. Steps in Adopting a Longevity Pay Plan
7. Summary

In addition, there is an Appendix which gives brief summary information on longevity pay plans used by a number of federal, state, county, and city jurisdictions; a list of references; and a selected bibliography.

Although the report is based primarily on government agency practice with some reference to private industry approach, it is equally significant for educational institutions.

Among the alternative methods of recognition for long service which Mr. Krause mentions are: non-monetary benefits such as lapel buttons, certificates, watches or other gifts; special privileges such as extra vacation, free parking, free group life insurance, full pay for all illness; monetary benefits such as added pension benefits, consideration of long service as a factor in job classification; added job security by adopting a "super-seniority" concept.

The author lists twelve advantages and twelve disadvantages claimed to stem from longevity pay. Unless one has formed a firm conclusion before considering the divergent claims, it may be easy to agree that "longevity can be praised and condemned with almost equal logic and vigor." Nevertheless, this report should be of particular interest to those in personnel administration who are considering the adoption or the expansion of a longevity pay plan.

Dorothy Everett
Personnel Analyst
University of California

How to Interview, by Walter Van Dyke Bingham and Bruce Victor Moore. Prepared with the collaboration of John W. Gustad. Fourth revised edition, 1959. New York, Harper and Brothers. 277 pp. Text edition: $3.75; trade edition: $4.50.

The continual changes in the practices and theories of interviewing as it has developed and grown through the years should be of interest to all who enter into an interpersonal relationship with others — personnel interviewers, student counselors, psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, market analysts, etc. *How To Interview* is a book that describes these changes, and members of CUPA and their associates will find it worth reading. Regardless of how much one knows about the interview, there is always so much more that remains to be learned.

In this forth edition of *How To Interview* the authors, besides going over old interviewing techniques and theories, discuss some of the newer practices now prevalent in interviewing. While not everyone will agree with all the theories proposed, the book will stimulate the reader to ponder his own interviewing practices.

Even though the authors state in the preface that the book is intended for the beginner — the person who is interested in gaining a greater understanding of the art of interviewing in its many forms and applications — it is felt that the experienced person will find it a very worthwhile book to peruse. One of the book's values for the serious student of the interview is the interesting and thought-provoking studies and theories of other researchers that are presented. Rather than enlarge the volume unduly, the authors elected only to mention these works briefly and listed the references at the end of

each chapter. These references are a compilation of some of the best selected reading in this field.

Although the title is *How To Interview,* this is not really a "how-to-do-it" book, nor have the authors intended it to be. Another title might well be "A Guide to the Interview — and Its Pitfalls". No one book or group of books can make a person an astute interviewer. As research has pointed out, some individuals make good interviewers, while others with all the knowledge contained in all the books on the interview cannot attain mastery of the interview. Also the authors recognize, as there are "certain general principles and certain working hypotheses" about the interview, there are also many contradictions and exceptions to these principles and hypotheses, so that one must be extremely careful about being dogmatic or about laying down any foolproof methods of interviewing. There are, however, some excellent guideposts to the interview contained in the book. Of particular importance are the guideposts set forth in Chapter 3, a list of which should be on every interviewer's desk and reviewed frequently.

The interview, as defined by the authors, is "a conversation with a purpose". They further point out that interviews usually have three main purposes. The first is to obtain information from the interviewees; the second is to give information; and the third is to influence their behavior. For the personnel interviewer, this reviewer would prefer to call the last purpose "Public Relations". After the interviewer has obtained all the necessary information in determining the applicant's qualifications, and after informing the applicant as to his qualifications for the position and informing him of company policies and benefits, the interviewer must create a favorable opinion of the company in the mind of the applicant whether he is employed or not. Regardless of the length of the interview, the applicant should leave the personnel office feeling that he was given every consideration, and that the company had an interest in him. He should go away feeling that this company would be a good place to work.

Of importance to the personnel interviewer and counselor are some of the pitfalls of interviewing as mentioned by the authors. Such things as the halo effect, projecting of his own needs, values and biases are some of the pitfalls for the unwary interviewer. It is because of this that some have hinted that interviewers should be psychoanalyzed to determine their own personality characteristics. It is not necessary to go that far, but the interviewer should know his own personality make-up and how it does or does not affect his interviewing.

This area of personality characteristics of the interviewer points up what can be considered the greatest contribution of the authors to the understanding of the interview — the interpersonal relationship of the participants in the interview situation. While this is not a particularly new idea, it has not, unfortunately, been given the attention it deserves. As the authors have stated, the interview is a conversation with a purpose. It is a conversation between two people. Whenever there are two people together there will be interaction. Each reacts to the other, independently and jointly. Just how they react will determine the success or failure of the interview. It is the interviewer's responsibility to un-

derstand, control and integrate this relationship between himself and the interviewee. As the authors state, this relationship is the strength of the interview and also its greatest danger.

One of the keys to successful interviewing may well depend upon the ability of the interviewer to foster good social relationships of warmth and trust. In the chapter on "The Participants in the Interview," empathy, which the authors say can be measured by the ability of the interviewer to predict how an individual will react, is cited as one of the requirements in establishing the proper rapport. Although it is felt that empathy is best defined as the ability to feel with, and to respond sensitively to, the feelings of others rather than predict them, it is agreed that it is essential that the interviewer possess it to some degree, along with an understanding of the motives of the interviewee, as well as of himself.

One criticism that some readers may make of the book is that at times the authors went into too much detail on an unrelated subject to make a point. An example of this is the rather detailed explanation of the Industrial Revolution to point out that where once there were relatively few occupations, today there are over 27,000 different occupations in the United States.

It has been said that interviewing is an art, and so it is. It is also recognized as a science, but there is a need for a more scientific approach. It is through a book, such as this, and through the research of others as cited by the authors, that interviewing is becoming more scientific. *How To Interview,* therefore, is a book of recommended reading for those involved in the interpersonal relationship of conducting an interview — the conversation with a purpose.

W. W. Berth
Assistant Director of Personnel
Rutgers University

NOTES & QUOTES . . .

(Continued from Page iii)

in real income, and another 5% per year to keep up with inflationary trends which appear to be the continuing characteristic of our economy. This should be a minimum goal.

Figures published by the United States Office of Education reveal that faculty salaries across the country were increased by about 7% per year during the three-year period of 1955-1958. However, the latest figures indicate that the percentage has probably dropped for the increase of 1959-1960 salaries over those of last year.

Participants discussed several recent studies which attempt to evaluate the factors of compensation which contribute to recruitment and retention of scholars in the academic profession. In one study, involving a small number of beginning college teachers, 50% of the respondents thought that base salary is of above average importance among the working conditions in the profession, and the remaining 50% considered base salary to be of average importance. Other studies have shown the importance of the following factors in attracting and retaining competent scholars for the academic profession: individual freedom of professors and administrators, the satisfactions of teaching and serving, physical facilities and services, clarity in understanding academic duties, and similar idealistic considerations. After general discussion of the relative weight of idealistic considerations as compared with economic status, the consensus of the group seemed to be that the philosophical attractions of the profession are important and laudable factors, but the whole profession must continually renew its efforts to alert the public to the financial needs of higher education, particularly during the period of expansion which lies ahead.

Several speakers commented warmly on the variety and attraction of total faculty compensations, and administrators were urged to consider new and effective means of "selling" available staff benefits to those interested in higher education — the public, prospective teachers, faculties, and students. At some institutions, public relations personnel are being employed to prepare statements for existing and prospective faculty members, and to consult with them, in reference to the types and advantages of staff benefits. One speaker urged that it is just as important to inform the faculty and public at large of what an academic person *does* as it is to explain what he *gets*. In this area of public relations, attention must be given constantly to the special kind of service which the academic profession offers — a service which differs from that of industry and non-academic civic agencies. In defining this special service, care must be exercised to explain the professional nature of such benefits as sabbaticals, teaching loads, academic freedom, and control which should be vested in the academic community itself.

A spokesman from the floor remarked that pressures from without the profession to increase the student-faculty ratio, add hours to the teaching load, and exert controls over the proliferation of courses — such as the proposals of Governor Furcolo and Beardsley Ruml — these things to be done in the name of efficiency, are potential

infringements upon the freedom of the professor, particularly his freedom to learn and to pursue a professional way of life. He stated that the professor as well as the registered student is an important integer in higher education. Various answers to this word of caution were proposed: (1) some specialists can secure foundation grants for research and writing which enable them to do less classroom teaching; (2) if concern about proliferation of courses is primarily directed toward low enrollments, the academic profession should be just as concerned about courses having large enrollments as those having small, and a similar consideration should be given to repetitions of course content in different courses; and (3) Mr. Ruml's book is not being attacked for the right reasons: he advocates that boards of trustees should make the decisions about curricular matters, in spite of a general consensus in higher education that the academic community itself should have this responsibility.

The discussion of the nature and value of fringe benefits brought out these points: (1) institutions should be interested in offering faculty benefits which individuals cannot afford to buy for themselves; (2) the faculty and administration should inquire into types of benefits which conform to advantages within our tax laws (e.g. tax free awards for summer research); (3) care should be taken to avoid waste in certain benefits (e.g. some older faculty members have more group life insurance than is needed, for which premiums are very high, while restrictions are placed upon admitting newly appointed younger faculty members to group insurance plans even though their premiums are relatively very low); and (4) benefit plans should take into account the differing needs of younger and older faculty members (e.g. the younger teacher places research opportunity high on his list of benefits, and he is less concerned about retirement privileges than he is about take-home pay).

It was generally agreed that teaching excellence should be given considerable weight in awarding merit raises and granting promotions. A word of caution was expressed about placing too much emphasis upon length of service and the statistics of publications and research; however, the advantages of research opportunities were strongly emphasized by several speakers. Evaluation of instruction by students is not popular with many faculty members, it was conceded, but one program of confidential evaluation by faculty colleagues is working satisfactorily, the group was informed.

One speaker from the floor urged the group to consider the importance of giving the teaching faculty a greater share in the development of the academic program; faculty talents should be used effectively, not merely for reasons of morale, but for the development of the whole institution; the criteria for faculty compensation should be widely discussed as policies are developed and should be publicly announced when policies are formulated; and there should be a continuing appraisal of all programs related to faculty compensation.

Near the conclusion of the session, one panelist gave voice to a point of view which was received with general approval: whether we like it or not, he stated, we must face squarely the problem of expanded enrollments, and we must

prepare ourselves for solutions which will be less than attractive in many instances. It is likely that we cannot maintain the same level of free time for the faculty member, and it will undoubtedly be true that the life of an academic person is destined to be quite hectic in coming years. We can console ourselves with the thought that the sacrifices of the current generation of professors will prepare the way for an academic world in which better things are attainable for all concerned in the education process. Another speaker reminded the group to include in our public appeals for support the thought that we seek funds in hehalf of young people, that the ends we envisage are ones which will benefit civilization itself, and that our primary concern is with quality education.